ERIC Document Resume	See Instruction Sheet	DATE OF RESUME	DATE RECEIVED

A. PUBLICATION DATA

1. ERIC NUMBER	2. ORIGINATOR CONTROL NO(S).	3. IDENTIFICATION NO.
ED001291	NA	NA

DO NOT WRITE IN SPACE BELOW

4. AUTHOR(S):
Sandberg, John H.

5. TITLE OF DOCUMENT ABSTRACTED:
Introduction to the Social Sciences: An Experimental Independent Study Course for Gifted High School Students-Teacher Manual

6. PUBLICATION TITLE:
NA

7. EDITOR(S):
Rolston, Ethel M.

8. PLACE OF ORIGIN
Commonwealth of Penn.
ORG. Dept. of Public Instruction
ST. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania
CITY, STATE

9. PUBLISHER OR SOURCE
Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, Dept. of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

10. VOL.	11. PAGES	12. MO./YR.	13. TOTAL PP.
NA	NA	63	29

TELE. EXT.
INST/LOC CODE

MICROFILM COPY AVAILABLE
YES ☒ NO ☐

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COPYRIGHT RELEASE FILED
YES ☐ NO ☐

TYPE OF REPORT
PROPOSAL ☐
IN-PROGRESS ☐
FINAL ☒
FOLLOW-UP ☐

OTHER ERIC REFERENCES:

ERIC SATELLITE CODE

B. INDEXING DATA

14. SUBJECT AREA

15. TYPE OF ENDEAVOR
teacher guide

16. INDEXING TERMS (6-12)

secondary ed.	senior student	intelligence factor	booklist	
two semester course	social science	in general areas	of research areas	of knowledge
research methods	concepts in modern	social science	occupation in social	science
unit plans	teacher's role	teacher guide	social sciences	independent study	gifted

17. ABSTRACT (MAX. 250 WORDS)

"Introduction to the Social Sciences" is a recognized and accredited course in the school curriculum. Though it is offered to seniors who scorer in the top two or three percentile ranks on standardized tests such as the Stander-Binet Intelligence Scale, it could be developed into a seminar.

Meeting once or twice a week, the two semester course should acquaint the students with the broad areas of social science in general, major areas of research and knowledge in social science, research methods in the social sciences, concepts and theories in modern social science, and the social sciences as occupations and/or professions.

The teacher's guide divides the course into sixteen units - 1. a general introduction to social science 2. Sociology: its history, subject matter, and point of view 3. the language of sociology 4. sociological method 5. a general introduction to anthropology 6. the culture concept 7. anthropology and the modern world 8. a general introduction to psychology 9. scientific method in psychology 10. psychoanalysis 11. a general introduction to political science 12. field research in political science 13. the perspective of the political scientist 14. a general introduction to economics 15. economics as a science and 16. careers in the social studies.

A booklist is included.

ERIC No.

18. SOURCE OF ABSTRACT

C. FUNDING DATA

19. SUPPORTING ORGANIZATION	20. DIVISION OR DEPT.	21. CONTRACT NO. / PROJECT NO.
	22. TOTAL COST OF PROJECT	
	23. DURATION OF PROJECT	U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Office of Education

ERIC Form 1

7P
file

INTRODUCTION TO THE

ED001291

SOCIAL SCIENCES

AN EXPERIMENTAL INDEPENDENT STUDY COURSE FOR GIFTED HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

TEACHER'S MANUAL

REPRINTED BY PERMISSION
U. S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION AND WELFARE
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Commonwealth of Pennsylvania
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION
Harrisburg
1963

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Governor

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Acknowledgments

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The manuscript was edited by Ethel M. Rolston, Editor.

Production, design, and layout by Richard F. Seiverling, Publications Specialist.

MESSAGE FROM THE SUPERINTENDENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

Introduction to the Social Sciences is an experimental course designed specifically for gifted high school students. It is intended to provide teachers and administrators with a practicable means of broadening the curriculum, especially in schools where special classes for exceptionally able students are not feasible.

The course is designed to acquaint students with the substantive content and methodological procedures of sociology, anthropology, psychology, economics, and political science. These disciplines are examined primarily as areas of ongoing scientific inquiry rather than as static bodies of accumulated fact. In a sense the course is *about* social science rather than *in* it.

Implicit in Introduction to the Social Sciences is the assumption that some high school students can undertake difficult, demanding work with a minimum of teacher supervision and assistance. The course is designed to be pursued independently by very able, well-motivated students. The materials are flexible enough, however, to be used as the basis for a seminar class in a school which has a large enough group of qualified students.

If Introduction to the Social Sciences proves to be practicable and useful, further development of independent study courses in other subject areas may be undertaken. Comments and suggestions regarding this experimental course are solicited.

Charles H. Boehm

PART I

DESCRIPTION OF THE COURSE

DESIGN AND PURPOSE

"Introduction to the Social Sciences" consists of a series of units for independent study which introduces the student to the sciences of sociology, anthropology, psychology, political science, and economics. The course is designed for the independent pursuit, under minimal teacher supervision, of gifted high school seniors. In its entirety it comprises a full-year course, but the design permits other adaptations.

The 16 study units which comprise the complete course are intended to acquaint the student with the following broad areas:

1. Social science in general: The nature of social science and its relationships to natural science; the interrelationships of the various social sciences; comparison of the scientific method with other methods of studying human behavior. This overview of social science provides a background to the study of its major divisions which constitutes the remainder of the course.

2. Major areas of research and knowledge in social science: The frames of reference or special concerns of each social science; special foci of research within each; the historical development of each out of "prescientific" thought.

3. Research methods in the social sciences: How social scientists gather data and analyze it; methodological problems and controversies; differences between social science and natural science in methodology and predictive ability.

4. Concepts and theories in modern social science: Fruitful concepts from each of the social sciences such as "culture," "role," "institution," immediately applicable by the student to the understanding of the behavior of himself and others.

5. The social sciences as occupations and/or professions: The education, training, and employment of social scientists; professional organizations; publications, etc.

The central purpose of the course is to provide the gifted high school student with perspectives on areas of research and knowledge which heretofore have been neglected in the secondary school curriculum. The course is intended to introduce the social sciences as sciences. Major emphasis throughout is on the social sciences as areas of inquiry rather than as static bodies of knowledge. The course is designed to acquaint gifted students with what social scientists do and how they do it; with the kinds of phenomena they study and the methods they use to study these phenomena.

The course is not intended to be a substitute for the usual introductory college courses in each science. The introductory course in political science at the college level, for instance, is usually the study of various forms of government, constitutions, laws, political organization and process, and similar subjects. In this course, however, acquainting the student with the research activities of the modern political scientist is emphasized.

The student first undertakes a relatively brief survey of the historical development of political science, followed by a unit on field research methods. Finally he learns how a variety of research approaches have contributed to our understanding of a significant problem in American government; that is, the problem of urban versus rural political power. Essentially the same approach is taken to all of the other social sciences; emphasis throughout the course is on the research activities of social scientists rather than on the bodies of fact they have accumulated.

"Introduction to the Social Sciences" is a course <u>about</u> social science rather than <u>in</u> social science. It gives the gifted student an understanding of the nature of social science and acquaints him with each of its major divisions. The perspectives he gains from this course should be helpful in planning future formal study of these disciplines, in guiding self-education, and in understanding and interpreting the findings of social scientists as reported in the mass media. Some of the concepts and theories the student encounters in the readings, such as the concept of culture, may add to his understanding of aspects of his own behavior and the behavior of other persons.

The materials should be practicable in a variety of school situations. They are designed to require minimal teacher time to administer and thus are useful to teachers already overburdened with the task of meeting the needs of a large number of average students. They are also designed for use by teachers who lack sufficient background in all of the social sciences to plan and conduct such a course. While the course of study is designed to be used by students working individually, it may also be used as the basis for a seminar or special class when the number of qualified students makes either plan feasible.

STATUS OF THE COURSE IN THE CURRICULUM

"Introduction to the Social Sciences" is a fully recognized and accredited course in the school curriculum. It is not merely an adjunct to some other course, nor should it be thought of as "enrichment," that is, extra work done for no credit. Successful completion of the course should carry credit for qualified seniors equivalent to that of any other two-semester course.

The desirability of obtaining credit status for the course is emphasized because too often gifted students are made to bear the burden of extra work which carries no extrinsic reward. Course work which is uniquely designed for gifted students should not be thought of as extraneous; it should be given status as an integral part of the total school curriculum. Many schools place bright students under heavy pressure to perform certain work thought to be for their welfare. Open-minded curriculum supervisors and administrators might well consider a rearrangement of such scheduled work to include this kind of planned course, if it appears to offer a suitable kind of educational or developmental experience. Finally, with regard to credit,

remember that students who are looking ahead to college admission cannot be expected to take much time away from required courses to pursue non-credit courses, no matter what the intrinsic interest and value of the latter may be.

SELECTION OF STUDENTS

Keep in mind that this course is designed for very able students only. Do not assume that any student who is making good grades in regular high school subjects can handle the work; many such students are already working near their "intellectual ceilings." Although no invulnerable selection procedure can be offered, the following suggested guidelines for choosing students should be helpful:

1. The student, preferably a senior but possibly from a lower grade, should score within at least the top two or three percentile ranks on standardized tests such as the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale or the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale. While such tests are by no means perfect measures of intellectual ability, they do provide an indication of the presence or absence of a certain base level of intellectual functioning demanded by this course. Mere application and diligence, as desirable as these qualities are, will not be sufficient to insure successful completion of the course unless they are accompanied by relatively superior general intelligence, as reflected in high test scores. The student who is faithful and diligent, but not very bright, is likely to find this course a frustrating and unhappy experience.

2. The student should demonstrate marked proficiency in reading as indicated by what he reads as well as how he reads. The student whose interests and tastes have caused him to do considerable independent reading of good quality will be a better risk than the "lesson learner" whose reading does not usually extend beyond assigned course work. Standardized reading test scores should show the student to be well above average in comprehension and in speed. If possible, the student should have an opportunity to "try out" some of the reading assignments before going ahead with the course.

Selection of students obviously cannot be made a simple matter of test scores. But if the approximate guidelines mentioned above are followed, it should be possible to find the kind of students for whom this course was developed.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

The course is designed to be administrable by any teacher, but like most other courses its effectiveness will to some extent depend on the effectiveness of the teacher. Ideally, perhaps, the course should be administered by a teacher who is interested in it, who is thoroughly familiar with both its purposes and its content, and who can and wants to work with gifted

students. Such a teacher could add immeasurably to the value and effectiveness of the course and administrators should make every effort to select an appropriate teacher for the task. In any case, however, the course possesses enough intrinsic interest and challenge to justify its pursuit by bright students even though the best available teachers may feel unsure of their ability to supervise the unusual procedure.

READING MATERIALS

Book Lists A and B list respectively the assigned and supplementary reading materials used in this course. Probably very few of these books will normally be found in the high school library. The administrator has a number of alternatives in purchasing reading materials: (1) the set of assigned readings may be purchased by the school, perhaps for presentation to the student upon successful completion of the course; (2) the books may be purchased privately, either by parents, by a group such as the PTA, or by the student himself.

The students' personal ownership of the assigned readings is stressed for several reasons. First, these books could form the nucleus of a good social science library which would serve to remind the student of the existence of social science, and which might encourage further book-buying in this area. More important, personal ownership permits a desirable freedom of contact between book and reader in that the latter may feel free to underline, make marginal notations, and otherwise make the book part of himself. American precollege students seldom have this opportunity.

The modest cost of paperbound books should make possible personal ownership of the assigned readings by every student who undertakes the course. In addition, the school library should have at least one complete set of the assigned and the supplementary readings. Book Lists A and B give both hardcover and paperbound editions for books presently available.

COURSE PROCEDURE

The student should work with a major degree of independence under the supervision of one teacher. The complete course constitutes a full school year of work; that is, the equivalent of two one-semester courses. Thus simple arithmetic, uncomplicated by considerations of unit variability, would suggest a time allotment of a little more than two weeks per unit. Actual time allotments must be worked out by student and teacher on the basis of the student's work load, length and difficulty of unit, and other such considerations. Teacher and student must agree upon and hold to some kind of time schedule. Weekly or biweekly meetings are desirable, but the teachers and students involved must arrange exact details.

While the course is devised specifically with the lone bright student in mind, it may also be used as the basis of a seminar for a small number of students. The "open-ended" nature of many of the writing assignments and the intrinsic interest of the readings themselves should stimulate discussion for bright students. Note again that the various sections of the course are not completely interdependent. A student may study only sociology or only anthropology without taking the whole course. This adds further flexibility to the possible uses of the material.

EVALUATION

The student's mark or grade in the course should be based on (1) the quality of his written work, (2) other factors which the teacher considers important, but which may vary with the situation, such as the student's demonstrated ability to work independently. In evaluating the student's performance, the teacher should keep in mind that this is an unusually demanding course which requires more time and effort than most high school courses. Advise the student of the quality of work expected as compared with college work. At the same time his class standing (or similar measure of position relative to other students) should not be jeopardized by unusually stringent marking. In other words, teachers should not frighten bright students away from the course by implying that they might receive lower marks than in an easier course which requires much less effort.

PART II

TEACHERS' GUIDES

The Guides are intended to help you to evaluate the student's written work for each unit. These are not exhaustive treatments of the questions. They contain only main points that the student might be expected to understand and record. The student's work need not correspond exactly to these suggested answers but a complete lack of resemblance may indicate lack of basic understanding either of the materials he has read or of the questions themselves. Further questioning might, in some cases, clarify the matter. Some questions, you will note, give the student complete freedom to exercise his imagination.

Unit I. A General Introduction to Social Science

1.

a. The labels "social" and "natural" imply certain differences between the two groups of sciences. These words refer primarily to subject matter rather than to method. Simply stated, social scientists seek to understand social phenomena while natural scientists study material elements or processes. There are areas of more or less exclusive interest: the natural scientist studies the molecular structure of a chemical; the social scientist studies the political structure of a community. Neither gets in the other's way. There are areas, however, where natural scientists and social scientists may study exactly the same subject matter but from different points of view. An entomogolist and a sociologist could apply themselves with equal vigor to the study of a colony of ants. The entomologist would be interested in the ants as ants, the sociologist in what light they might shed on human social behavior. In certain areas of psychology it is difficult to tell psychologist from physiologist. Both are concerned with the structure and function of sense organs, glands, and other parts of the body but usually from somewhat different points of view. Thus we see that while there

are great differences in subject matter between the natural and social sciences, there are also areas of overlap where the principal difference is one of point of view.

Research methods and techniques employed in the various sciences also differ. Social scientists are less likely to make use of test tubes, analytical balances, and microscopes than some natural scientists. The latter are less apt to make use of public opinion surveys, questionnaires, and rating sheets. Again, however, large areas overlap. All of the sciences lean heavily on mathematics. The electronic computer is as much a fixture in the social science "laboratory" as it is in the physics "lab."

Other disparities between the natural and social sciences have been suggested. One is the certainty of the knowledge provided by each, although many are more confident of the lasting nature of the "truths" established by natural scientists. Many properties of matter and many processes of a physical nature are so well understood that it is possible to make very accurate predictions about the behavior of matter in given situations. On the other hand it is claimed that the social sciences cannot hope to attain such a level of precision because of the nature of the creatures they are studying--namely human beings. Human beings are endowed with "volition," "minds of their own." Therefore, it is virtually impossible for the social scientist to predict human behavior with the same kind of certainty. Many social scientists, however, argue that this is not the whole story. They claim that much of human behavior is lawful and predictable, and thus subject to scientific inquiry.

b. Simpson points out three attributes of "science" (meaning science in general and not any specific science) which are (1) it is a method of arriving at knowledge; (2) it is the systematization of the knowledge arrived at; (3) it is an organization of men (scientists) who seek for truth and the causes of things. These three attributes are as much a part of social science as they are of natural science. While there are many methods specific to each of the sciences, all may be subsumed under the over-arching concept of "scientific method," at the heart of which is the use of experiment or controlled observation. The results of controlled observation in both the physical and social sciences are systematized into theoretical structures or systems. The atomic theory in physics and chemistry has its counterparts in social science theory. New discoveries bring about change in the theoretical structures of both the natural and social sciences but it is perhaps here that the two differ most at the present time. For many reasons

the systematized bodies of knowledge in the natural sciences are much larger and more stable than those in the social sciences.

Scientists, whether natural or social, are engaged in the pursuit of verified knowledge according to the rules of science. They both form hypotheses and test them, they both use applicable techniques of quantification and measurement, they both systematize the knowledge they obtain, and they are equally devoted to finding the truth about the things they study.

2. There are many antiscientific forces in modern American society. Only a few can be listed here but the student should recognize at least the following examples:

a. Organized Religion. The impact of science upon religion in all advanced countries has been great. Many books have been written on this complex and weighty problem and a thorough discussion of it here is hardly possible. Without becoming involved in philosophical discussion, however, it is possible to point out certain obvious facts about the past and present relationships of science and organized religion.

Opposition of the church to early scientific thought and discovery is well documented. Many early scientists were forced to recant their "heretical" beliefs and others were put to death. While such violent opposition is largely a thing of the past, our own century has seen numerous examples of overt, church-led opposition to scientific findings and theories. The Dayton Tennessee "monkey trial" is a celebrated example. Certain states, where religious groups exert considerable political power, have laws which prevent the free application of scientific knowledge to the solution of social problems.

While most modern Western religious groups live in a state of "peaceful co-existence" with science, some still cling to supernatural explanations of natural phenomena which were long ago superseded by scientific explanations. Some religious groups, for instance, reject scientific methods of disease prevention and cure, while others reject scientific knowledge about birth control and fight against its introduction in countries where over-population is the source of overwhelming social problems.

b. Other Vested Interests. Many individuals and organizations have a vested interest, usually financial, in ignorance. The vast domain of the medical quack is supported by ignorance. Most modern medical charlatans have adapted well to the impact of science by posing as scientists. The old-fashioned purveyors of ointments and salves have lost ground to pseudo-scientific quacks who employ impressive-looking but nonfunctional gadgets as they fleece the gullible.

Political scientists have provided us with a great deal of verified information about inequities in our political system which some professional politicians choose to ignore. Sociologists have made discoveries about the causes of crime and juvenile delinquency, but application of this knowledge has been frustrated by persons whose philosophies about crime and punishment could best be described as medieval.

Even intelligent and educated men have resisted scientific inquiry into some human phenomena which have heretofore been the exclusive province of the artist, the poet, and the philosopher. Many persons consider much of human behavior to be beyond the reach of the scientist and analyzable only by the sensitive artist. Resistance to scientific inquiry and progress has long been directed against both natural and social science and such resistance will doubtless continue as long as old beliefs are challenged.

3. Scientists are human beings and are subject to the same pressures and temptations as all other human beings. The working life of the scientist, however, is governed by a rigid set of rules; one of them is most fundamental--he must never knowingly attempt to deceive himself or others about his work. His reputation as a scientist rests in large part upon scrupulous adherence to this rule. If his desire for recognition or wealth or anything else becomes great enough to cause him to breach this rule, he forfeits his right to be called a scientist.

Most of the scientific organizations have formally codified the ethical standards for their professions and scrupulous adherence to these standards is required of all members. The scientist who makes false reports or claims is no longer considered to be a scientist by his colleagues. He may profit financially; he may enjoy the adulation of the public, but he can no longer hold up his head among other scientists. Herein lies the "ignominy and oblivion" of which Stuart Chase speaks. The desire of men to be known as scientists among scientists is a subtle but powerful force.

Unit II. Sociology: Its History, Subject Matter, and Point of View

1. In the section entitled "The Social Setting of Early Sociology" the authors discuss the probable influence on the genesis and development of American sociology of such social phenomena as increasing urbanization and industrialization and their attendant social problems, political protest movements, and the strongly religious backgrounds of many of the early American sociologists. All of these factors contributed to the "reform-oriented" character of early sociology in this country. This treatment constitutes a sociological analysis of sociology in which the latter is thought of as simply another manifestation of social behavior.

2.

a. Unemployment in West Virginia has been brought about by technological improvements in mining and by decreasing demands for coal (also a result of technological developments in other industries). Techniques whereby such displaced men could be retrained or relocated have been slow in developing, thus chronic unemployment has resulted. This is an example of how social welfare or "social engineering" lags behind material technology.

Effective methods of birth control which could end India's population problem have long been known by medical science; that is, the technology of birth control has been developed. The much more difficult (social) problem of getting the Indian people to use this technology has not been solved.

b. There are countless examples of culture lag in our culture and in others. The student might be challenged to find an example of material-technological culture lagging behind nonmaterial culture. There are also examples of one aspect of technological culture lagging behind another and thus causing problems. The strangulation of our cities by automobiles, because fast, clean, cheap, and efficient mass transportation methods have not been developed, is one example.

3. Positivism is the theory that knowledge should be acquired through careful observation, comparison, and experiment (rather than imagination, divine revelation, "armchair speculation," etc.). It is the philosophical foundation of much of modern social science.

Empiricism, like positivism, is the pursuit of knowledge by observation and experiment. The word is sometimes used derogatorily (e.g., "crudely empirical") to refer to observation and experiment which are unguided by any systematic theory.

Statistical method is common to all of the social sciences and involves primarily the systematic counting and classifying of many instances of whatever phenomenon is being investigated, as opposed to a thorough examination of a single case of the phenomenon. Statistics can be purely descriptive (as when the census tells us what the present population of the United States is) but the method is often used to make generalizations, inferences, and predictions, as when census data are used to predict what the population will be in 1980. (See inductive method.)

Induction or inductive method is the process of arriving at a generalization after the study of individual cases, as when the sociologist concludes, after study of migration patterns in one or more cities, that migration to the suburbs will happen in all cities under certain conditions.

Deduction or deductive method is used when the investigator proceeds from the general to the particular, as when a sociologist might begin with the premise or belief that all human beings possess "free will" and then interprets the behavior of an individual human being on the basis of that belief.

Determinism is the belief that human behavior is a product of environmental influences and previous experience as integrated by a given biological organism rather than of "free will."

Interactionism is the theory that the human personality is formed through interaction of the organism with the social and physical environment. Opposed to "nativism" which emphasizes the importance of inborn (instinctive) characteristics rather than learned (acquired) characteristics.

Behaviorism is a theoretical and methodological position in social science which maintains that only observable, quantifiable behavior can be used as data (facts). Anything subjective and unobservable such as "free will," "mind," "the subconscious," "thinking," etc., has no place in social science, according to behaviorists.

Unit III. The Language of Sociology

1.

a. Any student plays many roles in a week; e.g., son or daughter, brother or sister, boy friend or girl friend, student (perhaps "good student" in one class and "poor student" in another), class president, band member, football player, baby-sitter, peer group leader, altar boy, boy scout, etc. This list could be very long; if it is very short the student has probably overlooked some of his roles.

b. In one sense a role is defined by a basic set of behaviors expected of one who plays that role. For example, the football player role demands attendance at practice, a certain amount of discipline and willingness to follow the coach's orders, sufficient skill to do what is required in the game, and team spirit. Other aspects of the role may vary greatly; a player may or may not swagger a bit in the halls, display his "letter" prominently, etc. The list of behaviors which characterize a given role is likely to be lengthy. If the student can think of very few he probably does not understand the concept of "role."

2. High school football has several manifest functions (stated purposes) such as:

a. character-building, teaching of sportsmanship, teamwork, fair play;

b. physical or muscular development;

c. development of "school spirit" by providing a rallying point for all students, parents, and alumni;

d. raising money to support the rest of the athletic program.

It may also serve such latent (unstated and unrecognized) functions, good and bad, as the following:

a. Providing a socially sanctioned outlet for tensions in both players and spectators which might otherwise be released in such socially harmful ways as vandalism, delinquency, etc. In other words, it gives people a chance to "blow off steam." It can also be the cause of more tensions than it relieves.

b. Warping the self-concepts of young boys who cannot take in stride the excesses of praise, adulation, and recognition, which they receive for their athletic prowess. Boys who are otherwise undistinguished find adjustment difficult when their playing days end.

c. Developing in players, other students, the administration, and alumni the "win at any cost" morality. This may involve relaxing scholastic standards, overlooking serious breaches of right conduct on the part of star athletes, etc. This latent function could conceivably outweigh the manifest function of "character-building."

3. Every school has its unique set of "folkways"; i.e., conventional ways of doing things which most students follow but which an individual may ignore without fear of moral disapproval or formal punishment. Driving to school in a car may be a folkway in one suburban high school; but the "mavericks" may ride bicycles to school if they don't mind being different. Display of "school spirit" through wild cheering at athletic contests may be a folkway at one school; affected disdain for such displays may be a folkway at another, where serious study and competition for academic distinction are expected behavior. Most American schools share essentially the same set of "mores"; i.e., strictures against cheating, stealing, lying, destruction of property, etc. Your school may have some special form such as an "honor system" which could make informing on a cheater a moral obligation (i.e., one of the mores). In another school such behavior might be looked upon as "squealing" and would be anything but one of the mores.

Unit IV. Sociological Method

1.

a. Simpson would probably agree with Dr. Wertham, that having to "prove" scientifically that the reading of such comic books is harmful to children seems rather ridiculous. A thoroughgoing behaviorist would insist, however, that this is not an acceptable approach to the problem. Harm to the child as a result of such reading cannot be inferred subjectively by the scientist. He must show objectively that the reading has an effect on the child's observable behavior. This is the only "scientific" approach to the problem.

b. Simpson would probably go along with this statement, too: We cannot say that, because television writers portray scientists unfavorably in their scripts, they do it intentionally, or that they don't like or trust scientists. We must go much "deeper" to discover the "motivations" of the writers, Simpson would say.

c. He would also probably agree that it is necessary to go beyond mere statistical data about the number of various kinds of programs and how many hours people spend watching each kind. To discover the conscious (and unconscious) reactions of people to the programs they watch, is important.

d. Judging from what Simpson says on page 56 of Man in Society it seems unlikely that he would be impressed with the "semantic differentiation" method. He might say that the "measurements" obtained from such a scale would be too much a function of the construction of the scale and not enough of what was being measured. "Meaning" is far too complicated to be assessed by such a device.

2. One possible source of distortion or error in the data was introduced by interviewing the faculty group on Saturday night (the day following the event), but waiting until Monday night to interview the working-class group. Data on the two groups would have been much more comparable if it had been obtained on the same evening. Also, one might question the wisdom of conducting research of this kind at a time when newspaper distribution was affected by a strike; i.e., when conditions were abnormal.

3. The "Index of Effectiveness" is a convenient way to present certain data. To avoid its acceptance as a precise quantification, or a mathematically precise statement of some existing reality or relationship, however, it is necessary to examine carefully the nature of the data that go into the calculation of the "Index." For instance, the interviewers cannot be sure that the housewives who were interviewed really knew which advertising medium influenced them to change their buying

behavior. Because of that fact alone, the "Index of Effectiveness" is reduced to a quantitative statement of data that may have been erroneous in the first place. In short, it is legitimate to use numbers in this way, but the student must always be aware that the numbers may not correspond to any existing reality.

Unit V. A General Introduction to Anthropology

1. There is almost no limit to what an imaginative student can do with this topic. He must be able to "get outside" our culture and see our behavior as it might look to a complete stranger. A baseball game, for instance, is actually a highly formalized ritual with prescribed modes of dress, movements, spoken communication, hand signals, etc. Audience behavior, too, is highly formalized. Much of what is done by both players and spectators would probably seem ridiculous to an outsider. This would be true of the dance, too.

2. The scientists who are attempting to develop such machines are well aware of the difficulties they face. None of them has been so rash as to predict that a translating machine with all of the capabilities of the human being will be developed in the foreseeable future. The machine would have to be able to capture subtleties in both languages that derive from the cultural heritages of the people who speak them. Even the skilled human translator, no matter how steeped in both cultures, sometimes finds proper translation impossible. The Italian proverb "Traduttore, traditore" (Translators, traitors) suggests the impossibility of properly rendering subtle thoughts from one language into another which may not permit equivalent subtlety.

3. The student could probably argue either for or against Chase's statement. If he assumes that the "statesmen of the world" are men of good will who wish for all mankind to live in peace and prosperity, then it is probably true that anthropological knowledge would be desirable for them to have. If, on the other hand, they are not motivated by the desire for peace, then anthropological knowledge could be used by them to reach whatever ulterior ends they seek. Anthropology was a useful weapon for us in the last war; it is serving both sides in the "cold war." On balance, there seems to be little reason to accept Chase's statement without serious reservation.

4. The student has a free hand in answering this question. The only requirement is that he state clearly the reasons for his likes and dislikes.

Unit VI. The Culture Concept

1. The student should be able to find many examples of beliefs and customs that seem destined either to disappear or to undergo marked change. Customs of dress seem to be tending toward greater emphasis on comfort and less on sheer formality and style; there are few occasions now which call for the kind of formal dress seen 50 years ago. The expected behavior of women has changed radically in recent decades and will continue to change. Religious beliefs have been modified by the impact of science and education. Our culture is much more amenable to change than many others. Nevertheless one cannot "kick too hard." A politician cannot admit publicly that he does not believe in God (if he wishes to be elected). Women still eschew pipes, cigars, and chewing tobacco. The tie must be worn by all men on certain occasions. The nonconformist in our culture often suffers broken bones, literally as well as figuratively.

2. The old Indian's statement is actually a poetic translation of the culture concept. The culture (cup) of the Diggers which patterned their lives, was shattered through the impact of the alien culture of the white man. (See Patterns of Culture, Chapter 2.)

3. The student's answer will depend, obviously, on the individual whose behavior he analyzes. Chances are that the behavior of the "odd" individual differs only slightly from that of "normal" people. This question is intended to help make the point that we are all creatures of custom, and that even slight deviations from customary behavior can have a profound effect on our ability to function effectively in our culture. No one who wears red, white, and green trousers, even if they were made by Brooks Brothers, could expect to be elected president of the United States regardless of his other qualifications.

4. This question is intended to emphasize again that in many ways we are as irrational and "culture-bound" as many a group of illiterate savages. For example:

   a. Instead of chewing betel nuts we inhale the smoke of a common weed which not only stains our teeth but is suspected of being a cause of lung cancer as well.

   b. American women use "paint" in the form of lipstick, powders, rouges, hairsprays, deodorants, perfumes, fingernail polishes, etc. in much the same fashion as "primitive" women.

   c. Such rituals do not seem to differ in any significant way from our forms of prayer and other religious exercises which may involve watery wine, bits of bread, candles, incense, chanting, stooping, bowing, kneeling, etc.

d. American women wear awkward and uncomfortable shoes, painful garments of elastic and steel which are designed to help conceal "unsightly bulges," dresses which leave their legs uncovered even when the temperature is sub-zero, etc. The discomfort and absurdity of men's clothing have already been commented upon.

e. All of our major holidays such as New Year's, Christmas, Easter, Thanksgiving, tend to have orgiastic overtones. We eat until we are sick. We spend money carelessly.

f. For millions of Americans meat is "tabu" on Friday. Others consider the flesh of the pig to be unclean and therefore inedible. Many will eat only foods that have been blessed by a religious leader. Many activities may not take place on Sunday. In short, our culture is as riddled with "tabu" as is any primitive culture.

Unit VII. Anthropology and the Modern World

1. There are, of course, many examples of the impact of technical change on American culture. Automation, the replacing of men by machines, is one of the most important and is having the following effects:

a. Contributing to unemployment, especially among unskilled workers who cannot find other jobs. This growing "hard core" of unemployed people affects government policy in the area of unemployment insurance, relief, public works programs, etc. These programs involve large amounts of money and this tends to aggravate differences of opinion between "liberals" and "conservatives" as to the proper solution to the problem.

b. Labor-management relations become strained, with resulting strikes, production slow-downs, demands by labor for job security, shorter working hours, etc.

c. The importance of education increases as the number of unskilled jobs decreases. This places additional strain on the country's schools.

d. A large body of able-bodied but unemployable men can be a contributing source of problems such as crime, alcoholism, emotional disturbance, etc., insofar as these grow out of boredom and loss of self-respect.

An able and perceptive student might trace the effects of automation into other areas of the culture. It is not necessary that the student's analysis correspond to the foregoing.

Among other examples of important technical change in our culture in recent decades are (1) the improvement of farm technology which has produced large food surpluses; (2) television; (3) dependable commercial air transportation; (4) plastics; (5) synthetic fabrics; (6) frozen foods; (7) vending machines; (8) paperback books; and (9) inexpensive phonograph records. Any of these and many others could be subjected to analysis.

2. Reduction of infant mortality, if not accompanied by some effective method of birth control, must result in rapid population growth. Population growth, unless accompanied by increased production of food, clothing, and shelter, results in starvation and other hardships which in turn tend to lead to social unrest, political instability, etc. This is not just a possible chain of events; it has happened in South American countries and elsewhere. Thus a "good" act may have disastrous consequences for a culture.

3. All of these American clothing habits are examples of the power of custom to resist change, even change which reason and common sense would seem to demand. It is possible that the tie, the high heel, and the contemporary man's hat may eventually disappear, as have the powdered wig, high-buttoned shoes, spats, and wing collar of yesterday. The answer to the question of why we resist these changes lies in the culture concept itself. Instances where societies have spontaneously exercised such controls have been observed in essentially every human society, primitive or modern. The individual who tries to ignore culturally prescribed behavior, who tries to innovate, is given the label of "crackpot" or "nut" or some other opprobrious title, and thus his effectiveness is diminished. History's pages are filled with the stories of the lives of innovators and creators of the new and better who were scorned by their contemporaries.

Actually, our culture is less resistant to change in many areas than other cultures. It is quite possible that a massive and sustained effort on the part of a "Let's Be Reasonable About our Clothing" committee might hasten the changes in question. An imaginative student could do a great deal with this part of the question. He would have to consider such possibilities as having Congress pass a law banning the articles of clothing in question, persuading such "tastemakers" as fashion designers, movie stars, and sports heroes to adopt new modes of dress, etc. The student might remember that on occasions Congress has run into difficulty when it has attempted to tamper with a deeply ingrained custom (e.g., prohibition of liquor).

Some students may attempt to defend the tie, the man's hat, the high heel, on the basis of their "esthetic value"; i.e., high heels make a girl's legs prettier. Emphasize once again that there is nothing intrinsically esthetic about a rag of cloth around the neck, a slimmed ankle, a fattened calf, or a lump of grey felt with a feather in it perched on top of the head. Anything pleasing about these things is purely cultural; it is learned rather than being innate. The nose ring of the African belle enhances her beauty for an African man of a certain tribe just as the earrings of the American belle (along with her plucked eyebrows, sprayed hair, painted nails, powdered face, reddened mouth, ringed fingers--and high-heeled shoes) make her more attractive to an American male.

Unit VIII. A General Introduction to Psychology

1. Thorndike: "The world is made up of physical and mental facts .... Psychology, the science of mental facts or of mind, deals with the latter."

   Garrett: "... whenever a person is reacting to or interacting with people and things in the world around him, his behavior falls within the province of psychology whether it be described as 'mental' or 'physical'."

   These quotations seem to reflect clearly the changes psychology has undergone over the past half-century. Modern experimental psychologists do not, as Boring points out, draw sharp lines between the "mental" and the "physical" even though it may seem at times that they are either using new words to hide the old dichotomy or are simply ignoring much that seems inescapably "mental." In any case, most modern experimental psychologists claim that the subject matter of psychology (if it is to be a science) must be behavior--observable, verifiable behavior. There is no room in such a science for unobservable, unverifiable, "mental" phenomena.

2. An answer to the first part of this question is suggested by this quotation from Simpson: "It generally turns out that phenomena supposed to be sheerly individual, such as perception and memory, have been socially conditioned and even socially determined." (See page 34.) While some matters studied by psychologists seem to be clearly nonsocial (e.g., sensory physiology, the development of some motor processes, etc.), the vast bulk of the subject matter of psychology is affected by the social nature of man.

Nevertheless, as approaches to the study of human behavior, it is possible to make a meaningful distinction between individual and social psychology. While it is true that most of the behavior of individuals is socially learned, it is possible to study individual behavior, in the sense of behavior not affected by the presence of other persons. For instance, a psychologist might study the speed with which persons learn nonsense syllables under various environmental conditions that do not involve other persons.

On the other hand, social psychologists are primarily interested in the interactions of persons, or perhaps more accurately, the effects of interpersonal interactions on behavior. A social psychologist might study the effect of various groupings of individuals on the speed with which they learn nonsense syllables. Obviously individual psychologists, social psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists have a great deal to contribute to one another's understanding of human behavior.

3. No guide can be provided for this question inasmuch as each student's answer will be unique.

4. The student should analyze his data and attempt to tabulate his findings. Similar answers should be grouped together. The more people he interviews (a brief statement from each is all that is required) the better.

Unit IX. Scientific Method in Psychology

1. The experiment, as simple as it appears, will require careful planning and execution. Any "leak" of intentions prior to the experiment or failure to maintain a "straight face" while it is taking place will probably spoil the results. A moderate amount of carefully conceived showmanship before and during the experiment might help to create the desired illusion. The results of the experiment should be reported in some detail, whether it is successful or not. If no hallucination is produced, the experimenter should attempt to determine the possible cause of the failure. Repetition of the experiment with an audience of much different age could produce interesting differences in audience reaction.

2. Each student will answer these questions in his own way, of course. It is quite possible that a student may not find any of these research areas interesting.

1. Freud provides many examples of dreams that do appear to be wish-fulfillments as he has observed them in himself, his patients, his family, and other persons. But he is open to the charge that his observations were not scientific. He has selected particularly good examples of dreams which tend to substantiate his theory, but he does not include those which would seem to be very difficult to interpret as wish-fulfillments. He does not entertain the possibility that his theory may be wrong; rather, he interprets all dreams in the light of this theory. Even some of the examples he gives of wish-fulfillment dreams would seem to be open to equally valid interpretations based on other theories. In other words he claims that his theory is correct but he doesnot prove it merely by citing selected examples; nor is it a scientific test of the theory.

   In the experiment which Eysenck reports, a hypothesis is formed which is based on Freud's theory, to wit: "Men who are starving will dream more about food than men who are eating normally." This logical hypothesis evolving from Freud's theory is stated in such a way that it can be tested experimentally. Two groups of people are matched; one is starved and the other is not. The incidence of dreams about food in each group is found to be the same, and the hypothesis is rejected on the basis of the evidence. Because the evidence fails to support the hypothesis, the theory on which the hypothesis is based also is not supported.

   There seems to be little question about which procedure was the more scientific in this particular case. The burden of proving the correctness of the wish-fulfillment theory is placed squarely on the Freudians. If the student finds Freud's arguments more convincing he must be prepared to explain why.

2. The following interpretations are oversimplified but they describe possible, and quite dissimilar, approaches to the same problem.

   a. The psychoanalyst might attribute the woman's fear of dogs to some "traumatic" incident in her past--possibly in her childhood. The incident has long since been forgotten (repressed) but it remains in her subconscious. The psychoanalyst would probably try to help the woman remember the incident through the process of "free association" described by Fromm. If he succeeds in bringing the forgotten incident to consciousness, the woman is able to see the cause of her unnecessary fears and can rid herself of them.

   b. The learning theorist would say that the woman's fear of dogs was a result of conditioning or learning. She has learned to associate fear producing stimuli with dogs, perhaps by being bitten or mauled by a dog when a child. The solution to her problem lies in providing her with a new set of associations

which are not fear-producing. Through a series of planned experiences during which she is exposed to dogs under pleasant circumstances she will gradually learn that she need not be afraid of dogs. It is unnecessary, says the learning theorist, to postulate an "unconscious." It is only necessary for the woman to learn new behavior in the presence of dogs.

Unit XI. A General Introduction to Political Science

1. The following are highly simplified statements of some of the psychological assumptions which Ebenstein and Simpson attribute to these writers. The student's responses need not be any more detailed or elaborate.

   a. Plato insisted that man could be studied only as "whole man," not as "political man" or "economic man." He thought it impossible to study man's political behavior apart from all of his other behavior. None of man's actions are governed by political considerations alone.

   b. One of Aristotle's psychological assumptions was that some groups of men were naturally inferior to others. He considered the Greek slaves to be subhuman and unfitted for the task of governing themselves.

   c. Machiavelli assumed that men are basically unscrupulous and driven by greed and lust for power. He said that the man who tried to be good would be trampled by those who are bad.

   d. Hobbes, too, believed that human beings are basically anti-social. In the state of nature, without government, they lived in fear and strife.

   e. Locke, unlike Machiavelli, Hobbes, and Bentham believed that men were basically good and decent, even in the state of nature.

   f. Bentham assumed that at the root of human behavior was the desire to maximize pleasure and minimize pain.

   Modern political scientists make assumptions about "human nature" in much the same way, but these are based on the supposedly less primitive psychology of today. (See, for instance, Harold Lasswell, Psychopathology and Politics.)

2. This list of book titles, which could be lengthened almost indefinitely, points up the high degree of interrelationship between political science and other disciplines. Political behavior, as Plato argued, is not separable from other behavior in actuality. Thus the modern political scientist, as this list of books testifies, must be cognizant of the contributions of students of literature, economics, geography, psychology, sociology, and even religion.

3. Aristotle showed his understanding of the sociological foundations of political behavior in several ways. In his studies of comparative government he attributed the varying forms of government in different countries to social and other factors within those countries. He said that the political stability of a country was dependent on an equitable social and economic order, and found the causes of revolution and crime in poverty, not in the machinations of "bad men."

Unit XII. Field Research in Political Science

1. Perhaps the teacher's most important function in this unit is to make sure that the student does not go into the interview unprepared. (How he actually handles himself in the interview situation will be beyond your control.) The student should know what he is going to ask and why. He should know important facts about the person he is going to interview, and about the office he holds, before the interview. He should be able to explain why he chose one person rather than another. His preparation is actually more important than the report he writes later. He should come away from this experience with an appreciation of the difficulties and subtleties in this kind of research.

Unit XIII. The Perspective of the Political Scientist

1.

a. Only a very myopic political scientist could have predicted any other result. The reason for this is found in the following excerpts from Professor Baker's chapter on misrepresentation in Congress:

> A glance at the committee rosters of any session of Congress will quickly reveal the preponderance of rural power. Ranking Democrats are usually from Southern rural areas, while the senior Republicans tend to represent rural constituencies of the Middle West and the Northeast. This pattern holds true for both houses, but especially for the House of representatives, due to its more parochial basis ... In addition to holding a controlling share of committee chairmanships, rural forces often fare exceptionally well in the total representation on the more important committees.... The committee structure of Congress places a large portion of the nation's decision-making in the hands of individuals and groups least responsive to the needs of a modern industrialized society. An increasing amount of national legislation encompasses problems of primary concern to urban inhabitants--housing, civil defense, labor, and

business policies, to mention a few. Yet the internal organization of Congress leaves that body poorly equipped to handle these vital problems with adequate understanding. Furthermore, the local and unduly rural bias of Congress helps explain the wide gulf that so often separates the legislature from an executive branch inevitably more concerned with nation-wide issues.

b. President Kennedy predicted that eventually there will be a Department of Urban Affairs--that such a development is inevitable. While many political scientists would probably agree with him, they would hesitate to predict just when this will happen. The same forces which brought defeat to the initial proposal will probably continue to act for some time. It is likely that some means of circumventing or "buying off" the anti-urban forces will be found. The forces of change seem to be on the side of the President's prediction in this case.

2.

a. The whole of chapter two is devoted to a historical account of the background to the problem of rural-urban imbalance. Nearly every chapter contains historical data in some amount.

b. Chapter four is largely a discussion of the economic problems of large cities and draws on data provided by economic statisticians. There are other examples of the use of economic data scattered throughout the book.

c. Sociological data is also found throughout the book. The discussion in Chapter one of population growth and trends is an example.

3.

a. The Supreme Court decided that it is the legitimate business of the Federal courts to hear cases regarding the appointment of seats in state legislatures. Discussions of the importance and possible ramifications of this decision may be found in almost any newspaper or news magazine for the week of March 26, 1962, and immediately thereafter.

b. On page 61 Professor Baker said that he thought such a decision by the Supreme Court was "unlikely for some time." He wrote this in 1955; thus the accuracy of his prediction would depend on the definition of "for some time." Considering the full context of his remarks it seems doubtful that he expected this decision so soon.

c. The student should recognize that this one case is insufficient to make any generalizations about the predictive power of political science. However, it does point up some of the enormous difficulties faced by the political scientist in attempting to make predictions about some matters.

Unit XIV. A General Introduction to Economics

1.

a. Defense contracts mean jobs and jobs are held by voters. Therefore it might be expected that the distribution of contracts is not entirely (and always) a purely economic matter. Political influence has often played an important part.

b. The Indian farmer, like his counterpart in many underdeveloped countries, is caught up in a web of habit and custom that is difficult to escape. Increasing the productivity of Indian farmers is not simply a matter of introducing new machines and methods, or of encouraging outside investment. The economics of Indian agriculture is closely related to social and psychological phenomena that must be understood before effective changes can be instituted. It should be noted that United States agriculture is also entangled in politics (for example, the price support programs). If all government controls were suddenly removed, there would probably be widespread and profound changes in American agriculture.

c. The Aswan dam on the Nile river in Egypt is something of an international "political football." Egypt alone would probably not have been able to raise the necessary capital to build it. But as a result of the struggle between East and West the dam is being built, largely with Russian money and know-how. No conceivable economic return could justify the Russian expenditure. Political considerations, however, make it worthwhile.

d. The foundation stone of the American economy is the making, selling, and buying of automobiles. But much more is involved than simple supply and demand. The industry prospers only to the extent that it can stimulate and create demand for its products. The psychology of making and marketing automobiles is thus tremendously important. Constant changes in styling, increase in horsepower and speed, adoption of glamorous names, and a host of other techniques are designed to make us dissatisfied with our present car despite the fact that it performs perfectly. Some of the best-paid psychologists in the world are engaged in the very important business of making us want things we don't need.

2. What is wanted here is the student's reaction to the book. Does it arouse an interest in further study of economics? Is it too difficult for most students?

Unit XV. Economics as a Science

1. There are many reasons for the frequent failure of economists to hit the mark with their predictions. Very often, especially in the past, they have had insufficient information or data to work with. Often there are unforeseen, unpredictable, and uncontrollable

events (e.g., prolonged drought) that affect predicted outcomes. Economists have sometimes ignored or overlooked data provided by other social scientists. Also they have failed to take sufficiently into account the impact of political, psychological, and sociological realities on economic phenomena. In short, the economist's predictions are usually subject to the influence of countless variables both predictable and unpredictable. As his tools and techniques are refined and improved his ability to see ahead will also improve.

2. The high speed computer, especially when it reaches its full potentialities, will enable the economist to use effectively vast amounts of data that he simply cannot handle with today's data-processing technology.

3. The following are only a few suggestions; the student may have more or different ones:

a. sociologists will be concerned with the effects of unemployment on mobility patterns, school dropout trends, age of marriage, family size, and a host of other social factors.

b. anthropologists will be interested in most of the things that sociologists are interested in and vice versa.

c. psychologists will be concerned about the effects of automation on mental health and psychological adjustment in general. If automation results in a drastically reduced work week, psychologists will be interested in the effects of greatly increased leisure time on the behavior of people.

d. political scientists recognize that any technological change as momentous as automation is bound to affect political behavior in some observable way. For instance, the social disruptions of automation could conceivably be so great that government planning and controls might have to be expanded far beyond anything that we have experienced thus far in our relatively open market society.

e. economists will be interested in, among other things, the possibility of supply completely outrunning demand for products; that is, in the distribution problem. For instance, the question arises: How can we sell cars to the machines that make them?

Unit XVI. Careers in the Social Studies

The student has a free hand in both of these writing assignments. No attempt should be made to coerce him into saying that he likes any of the social sciences or that he enjoyed the course. The only requirement is that he state the reasons for his likes and dislikes clearly and convincingly.

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